

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this second chapter, the researcher elaborates on theories related to the research variables, namely reading comprehension ability, the Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) learning model, reading comprehension, and recount text.

A. The Nature of Reading

Reading has become increasingly significant in today's globalized era, especially in academics, where both teachers and students need to process a vast amount of information to facilitate the transfer of knowledge. Through reading, individuals are expected to analyze and interpret the ideas conveyed within their study materials.

For English learners, reading is a fundamental skill to develop. It is not only crucial for mastering the language itself but also for excelling in subjects where English is the medium of instruction. Reading is viewed as an interactive exchange between the text and the reader. As they read, individuals actively search for and build meaning, drawing from their prior knowledge as well as the content of the text.

Searfoss and Readance (1989) in Novianti (2015) describe reading as an active process of constructing meaning from written material. They emphasize that reading involves much more than merely recognizing words on a page. While understanding the definitions and functions of words is essential, readers must also comprehend their context within the text.

Similarly, John D. Cooper (2002) in Novianti (2015) highlights that reading is a deliberate process in which readers interpret the meaning of a text by combining clues provided in the text with their pre-existing knowledge. This process suggests that reading is not just about decoding written symbols but involves a dynamic interaction between a reader's linguistic capabilities, their personal experiences, and the text itself.

More recently, contemporary research has further solidified the view of reading as a complex multimodal and metacognitive skill. Pang and Lantz (2022) emphasize that effective reading comprehension transcends basic word decoding; it fundamentally relies on the reader's ability to regulate their cognitive processes (metacognition), such as setting goals, monitoring understanding, and implementing repair strategies when comprehension breaks down. In the digital age, reading is also increasingly viewed as a fluid, non-linear process where readers interact with various forms of media, requiring not just textual literacy but also the ability to synthesize information from diverse sources to construct holistic meaning (Lee & Chen, 2020). Thus, reading is an ongoing, strategic interaction where the reader actively constructs knowledge using both internal mental frameworks and external textual cues.

1. The Purpose of Reading

Reading serves as a gateway to knowledge and scientific discovery, making it a crucial skill for personal and professional growth. Anderson emphasizes that the primary purposes of reading are to seek and gather information, grasp the content, and understand the meaning conveyed in the text. The objectives of reading can be categorized as follows:

- a. Reading for detailed facts: Extracting specific pieces of information from the text.
- b. Reading for main ideas: Identifying the central message or theme of the text.
- c. Reading for sequences or organization: Understanding the structure and flow of ideas within the text.
- d. Reading for inference: Drawing conclusions and interpreting meanings that are implied but not explicitly stated.
- e. Reading to classify: Organizing information based on categories or criteria.
- f. Reading to evaluate: Assessing the text critically for its validity, relevance, or value.

- g. Reading to compare or contrast: Analyzing similarities and differences between ideas, concepts, or arguments within the text.

2. Models of Reading Process

To comprehend the content of a particular text, an individual must follow a process. During this process, a reader may rely on one model, a combination of two models, or both approaches simultaneously. Essentially, this means that reading involves activating both the reader's linguistic competence and their background knowledge. The models of the reading process include *the bottom-up model*, *top-down model* and *the interactive model*

a. Bottom-Up Model

The bottom-up model focuses on lower-level reading processes. Readers begin by mastering basic elements, such as letter and sound recognition, which then progress to morpheme and word recognition, identification of grammatical structures, sentences, and eventually larger text.

This model is text-driven, with comprehension built in a linear manner. Readers decode letters, words, phrases, and sentences step by step, constructing understanding piece by piece. It suggests that reading is a mechanical process where readers translate information in the text without heavily relying on their background knowledge.

b. Top-Down Model

In contrast, the top-down model emphasizes that comprehension stems from the reader. Readers use prior knowledge, form predictions, and engage with the text to confirm or refute these predictions.

This approach allows readers to grasp the meaning of a passage even if they do not fully understand every individual word. Within this model, educators are encouraged to focus on activities that generate meaning rather than focusing solely on word recognition.

c. Interactive Model

The interactive model is widely accepted as the most comprehensive explanation of the reading process. It combines elements from both the bottom-up and top-down models, proposing that comprehension is synthesized by integrating various sources of information simultaneously.

Murtagh highlights that proficient second-language readers are those who can effectively combine both bottom-up and top-down processes. The goal of this model is not to develop speed readers but rather fluent readers who actively engage with the text for meaningful understanding.

B. Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is the ability to process, understand, and interpret written text. According to Grabe and Stoller (2013), reading comprehension involves not only decoding words but also constructing meaning through interaction with the text. It requires cognitive skills such as predicting, questioning, summarizing, and making inferences. In the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), reading comprehension is crucial for students to access information and develop critical thinking skills.

Reading skills encompass understanding various kinds of text. Davis (1968) identifies five key reading comprehension skills, which include remembering word meanings, making inferences from the text, following the text structure, understanding the author's intent, tone, attitude, and mood, and answering recall questions—questions where the answers are found directly in the text. Similarly, Rosenshine (1980) categorizes reading comprehension skills into recognizing sequences of information, understanding words in their context, identifying main ideas, analyzing details, inferring, understanding cause-and-effect relationships, and drawing comparisons or contrasts. Jordan (1997) expands on this by adding skills like predicting, skimming, scanning, distinguishing facts from opinions, drawing conclusions and inferences,

interpreting graphic organizers, and understanding text structures as well as linguistic elements.

Building on these, Grabe and Stoller (2002) highlight 18 reading comprehension skills, which include setting a purpose for reading, planning the reading process, previewing the text, predicting its content, verifying predictions, forming questions about the text, answering those questions, connecting the text to prior knowledge, summarizing, inferring, analyzing the text structure, re-reading for clarity, using discourse markers to see text relationships, checking comprehension, identifying reading difficulties, addressing comprehension issues, critically evaluating the text, and reflecting on what has been learned.

In this context, specific reading skills such as skimming, scanning, forming opinions, predicting, summarizing, paraphrasing, and inferring were chosen due to their practical application in reading activities found in "Action Pack 10." These skills are particularly emphasized within the content and teaching techniques utilized in the program.

Skimming (or "gist reading") helps readers grasp the general idea or summary of a text. Tasks like identifying the title, pinpointing the topic sentence, or summarizing are examples of how to develop this skill (Shastri, 2010). Talbot (2009) also notes that skimming involves quickly extracting key information without reading every word.

Scanning focuses on finding specific information—like an answer to a question, a particular date, or a name—without needing to understand the rest of the text. Readers can practice this by searching for precise details (Hedgcock & Ferris, 2009; Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

Giving Opinions encourages readers to express their own thoughts or make judgments about the content they have read. Drawing on prior experiences and knowledge can deepen their understanding and critical thinking (Berry, 2005; Mikulecky & Jeffries, 1996).

Prediction involves making educated guesses about what the text will say next, based on what has been read and prior knowledge. Tools like titles,

pictures, subtitles, or blurbs can guide predictions (Day & Park, 2005; Moreillon, 2007; Tankersley, 2005).

Summarizing requires condensing the main points of a text into a shorter version, which strengthens understanding and helps differentiate primary ideas from minor details (Mikulecky & Jeffries, 1996; Hedgcock & Ferris, 2009).

Paraphrasing involves rephrasing the original ideas of a text in different words to ensure a deeper understanding. It's an effective way for readers to confirm their grasp of the text's meaning (Katims & Harris, 1997; Munro, 2005).

Inferencing pushes readers to read "between the lines" by combining explicit information from the text with their intuition and background knowledge. This skill is crucial for understanding implied meanings (Day & Park, 2005; Harp & Brewer, 1991).

By mastering these skills, readers can navigate text more effectively, whether they are searching for details, analyzing information, or forming critical perspectives. Each skill not only enhances comprehension but also fosters deeper engagement with written material.

Furthermore, the definition of reading comprehension has expanded significantly in the face of digital literacy demands. Coiro and Dobler (2021) argue that modern comprehension requires not only the traditional skills of summarizing and inferring but also sophisticated digital reading skills. These include the ability to critically evaluate online sources, navigate non-linear hypertext, synthesize information across multiple digital interfaces, and distinguish between reliable and unreliable information. This contemporary perspective underscores that reading skills must now be taught as dynamic, flexible strategies, enabling students to effectively manage the large volume and diverse formats of text encountered in academic and real-world settings (Leu et al., 2019).

1. Levels of Comprehension

Reading comprehension operates on several levels, as identified by different researchers. Barrett (1972) outlines four types of reading

comprehension: literal, recognition (recall), inferential, and appreciative. Shastri (2010) suggests five levels: global, local, referential, inferential, and evaluative. Meanwhile, Richards and Schmidt (2010) categorize reading comprehension into four levels: literal, inferential, critical (evaluative), and appreciative. For this study, the focus is on the literal, inferential, and critical levels.

Literal comprehension, often called "local comprehension," involves understanding and identifying specific points of information explicitly stated in the text. At this level, the information is directly available, requiring minimal effort to interpret. Barrett (1972) breaks this level down further into *recognition* (locating straightforward information) and *recall* (producing explicit information from memory). Questions at this level typically begin with words like "who," "what," "why," or "where" and require readers to identify details directly stated in the text (Day & Park, 2005; Muayanah, 2014). Readers don't need to "read between the lines," as the information is clear and easily accessible.

Inferential comprehension represents a deeper level of understanding. Here, the ideas are implied rather than explicitly stated, requiring readers to think critically and make connections between the text and their own knowledge (Shastri, 2010). Day and Park (2005) emphasize that this level demands linking literal information with intuition and background knowledge, as answers are not immediately obvious. Readers must infer what the text suggests but does not say outright.

Critical comprehension goes a step further. At this level, readers evaluate the text, forming judgments about its accuracy, value, and effectiveness. Day and Park (2005) and Nuttall (1996) explain that this level involves both literal understanding and contextual knowledge of the topic. Readers can express agreement or disagreement with the author's perspective, using their own values and experiences to critique the content (Shastri, 2010). According to Richards and Schmidt (2010), critical reading involves comparing the text's information with the reader's existing knowledge and viewpoints.

These three levels of comprehension are often described as reading the lines (*literal comprehension*), reading between the lines (*inferential comprehension*), and reading beyond the lines (*critical comprehension*). Teachers play a crucial role in fostering these skills, as they are essential for developing students' ability to analyze, construct meaning, and solve problems. However, these abilities do not develop automatically—they require intentional instruction and practice (Robinson & Good, 1987).

2. Strategies for Reading Comprehension

Strategies can be defined as methods or approaches used to achieve specific objectives. According to May (2009) and Westwood (2008), strategies play a significant role in improving reading comprehension. Brown (2001) reinforces this idea by stating that reading comprehension largely depends on developing effective and efficient strategies. In essence, employing reading strategies enables readers to better understand a text.

Numerous experts have proposed strategies to enhance reading comprehension. Brown (2001) identifies ten specific strategies, which align with both the bottom-up and top-down approaches to reading. These strategies include: identifying the purpose of reading, using graphemic rules and patterns to support bottom-up decoding, employing efficient silent reading techniques for faster understanding, skimming for main ideas, scanning for specific details, utilizing semantic mapping or clustering, making educated guesses when uncertain, analyzing vocabulary, distinguishing between literal and implied meanings, and interpreting discourse markers to understand relationships within the text.

Furthermore, Neufeld (2005), and Maharaj (2007) all agree that reading strategies should be applied across three stages: before, during, and after reading. For example, Richards and Schmidt (2002) recommend previewing the text and setting goals before reading, monitoring comprehension and adapting those goals while reading, and finally summarizing and evaluating the content after finishing.

In addition to these stages, Neufeld (2005) highlights the importance of equipping readers with the ability to ask and answer questions while reading. These questions not only guide the purpose of reading but also influence the choice of reading strategies since different objectives often require distinct approaches. Integrating questioning into reading strategies helps readers engage more deeply with the text and enhances their understanding.

In conclusion, various reading strategies contribute to text comprehension. These strategies are aligned with both the bottom-up and top-down models of reading and are most effective when applied before, during, and after the reading process.

C. Teaching Reading Strategy

Teaching reading to Senior High School students requires the use of suitable techniques to ensure that students remain active and creative during reading lessons. Reading serves as the foundation for learning English, and students can enhance their reading abilities through consistent practice.

When teaching reading to Junior High School students, teachers must focus not only on effectively implementing techniques that align with the characteristics of younger learners but also on encouraging student participation. Such participation fosters activities that simultaneously support the improvement of reading skills.

In light of this, the writer is interested in implementing specific teaching techniques in the school, especially for reading instruction. Various techniques have been introduced in other researches, including *Assumption Busting*, *Brainstorming*, *Metacognition*, *SQ3R*, and *DRTA (Directed Reading Thinking Activity)*. Among these, the writer highlights the DRTA technique as the main focus.

D. Reading Assessment

Reading assessment refers to the systematic process of measuring and evaluating a reader's comprehension and related skills. The primary goal of assessment in reading instruction is to identify students' strengths and weaknesses, monitor their progress, and ultimately determine the effectiveness of teaching methods (Weir & Shaw, 2021). According to contemporary assessment theories, reliable reading evaluation must be highly specific, encompassing the reader's ability to not only process linguistic information but also deploy metacognitive strategies and handle the increasing complexity of non-linear digital texts (Alderson & Bachman, 2020).

Assessments can broadly be categorized into two forms: formal and informal. Formal assessments, such as standardized tests or researcher-developed instruments (like the pre-test and post-test used in this study), provide quantitative data on proficiency. Meanwhile, informal assessments, which include observation, discussions, and student self-reports, offer qualitative insights into students' cognitive strategies and metacognitive awareness during the reading process (Grabe, 2021). Regardless of the format, a high-quality reading assessment must align closely with the instructional objectives—in this case, focusing on the specific comprehension skills required for the recount text genre—to ensure the empirical data collected accurately evaluates the success of instructional strategies like DRTA (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2022). Thus, assessment serves as the fundamental mechanism for collecting valid data necessary for research purposes.

E. Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA)

1. Definition of Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) Strategy

The (DRTA) strategy, developed by Stauffer, is an instructional method aimed at fostering key skills such as predicting, summarizing, and evaluating. This approach, often integrated with oral retelling and

comprehension questioning, provides valuable insights into students' understanding of story structures and their metacognitive comprehension abilities.

DRTA is an interactive teaching strategy that encourages students to make predictions, set goals for their reading, and actively seek textual evidence to support their predictions. It is designed to help learners establish specific reading objectives, analyze and synthesize information, make generalizations, and develop critical and reflective reading skills. Additionally, it promotes higher-order cognitive reasoning by engaging students in thoughtful interactions with the text.

The primary purpose of DRTA is to encourage students to read critically and reflect on the material they encounter. This technique helps readers define a purpose for reading, engage deeply with the text, and remain actively involved throughout the lesson. It guides them to carefully examine the material and improve comprehension by linking their predictions with textual evidence.

In conclusion, DRTA serves as an effective teaching method that equips students to read purposefully and attentively. It enables them to pose questions about the text, make informed predictions, and validate or disprove those predictions through careful reading. Ultimately, the DRTA process encourages active and mindful engagement, enhancing comprehension and promoting deeper learning.

2. The Procedure of Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA)

The implementation of (DRTA) involves three essential stages: predicting, reading, and confirming or revising predictions. According to Stahl (2008), both students and teachers play distinct roles in this process. Students are expected to determine their reading purposes, create predictions, justify their assumptions, read the text, and confirm or modify their predictions based on the information found in the text. On the other hand, teachers are responsible for selecting appropriate text, dividing them into meaningful sections, and facilitating discussions during the activity. Below are detailed explanations of the DRTA stages:

a. Before Reading: Predicting

In this stage, students predict the content of the text by responding to questions posed by the teacher. This helps them set a clear purpose for reading, which is to determine whether their predictions are accurate. The teacher's role at this stage is to activate students' prior knowledge and stimulate their thinking by encouraging them to defend their predictions.

To encourage predictions, teachers can introduce the title, related images, and keywords from the text (McKown and Barnett, cited in Acosta and Ferri, 2010). Additionally, the text should be divided into manageable segments to support comprehension in smaller steps. The following steps outline the process:

- 1) The teacher guides students to examine clues in the text, such as the title, keywords, illustrations, or supplementary materials.
- 2) The teacher facilitates the creation of predictions about the text's content.
- 3) Students write down their predictions, either individually, in pairs, or through class discussions to compile a collective list.
- 4) The teacher encourages students to establish a purpose for reading by directing them to determine whether the text confirms or disproves their predictions.

b. While Reading: Reading

During this stage, students verify their predictions by locating evidence in the text. With their predictions in mind, they read the first section of the text to assess their accuracy. Importantly, there are no "right" or "wrong" predictions—some may be more accurate than others. Students with less accurate predictions are encouraged to refine them as they proceed. The process includes:

- 1) The teacher asks students to read the text silently or aloud, either individually or in groups, to validate their predictions.

2) Students use a Prediction Verification Checklist, marking their predictions as accurate, less accurate, or inaccurate as they progress through the text.

c. After Reading: Confirming or Revising Predictions

At this stage, students engage in discussions to compare their predictions with the actual content of the text. They confirm, adjust, or reject their predictions based on textual evidence, providing justification by referencing specific parts of the text. The teacher's role here is to deepen the reading and reasoning processes. This stage involves:

- 1) Students discussing their predictions in comparison to the text's content.
- 2) Teachers guiding students in analyzing their Prediction Verification Checklist to evaluate how well they predicted the text's content.
- 3) Teachers confirming the students' understanding of the DRTA method by asking reflective questions, such as: "What is the strategy called? How does it help you understand the text? What should you do before, during, and after reading?"

The cycle of predicting, reading, and validating predictions continues until the entire text is completed. Finally, the teacher concludes the lesson with a review of the text's content and a discussion about the prediction strategies that students can use for future reading.

3. The Strength and Weakness of DRTA Strategy

It is evident that the (DRTA) technique offers several strengths. According to Burn (1996), DRTA can enhance students' reading comprehension because it encourages interaction with the material during the reading process. Making predictions about the text prompts students to actively think about the message it conveys. Additionally, this technique helps students apply metacognitive skills as they reflect on their reasoning.

Smyers, as cited in Burn (1996), states that DRTA procedures contribute to a balanced exchange between students and teachers in the

classroom while increasing student engagement. Similarly, Eanes (1997) highlights that DRTA is effective in teaching students to make predictions as a purpose for reading.

The DRTA technique also fosters active reading. Almasi (2003) emphasizes that the prediction process within DRTA helps students focus on the text and promotes active engagement. Furthermore, Richardson and Morgan (1997) argue that DRTA is a valuable tool for teachers to model accurate and effective reading skills. Billmeyer and Barton (1998) note that making predictions can help clarify any misconceptions about the subject matter. Corner (2006) adds that DRTA encourages students to make predictions throughout the reading process.

However, the DRTA technique is not without its limitations. Billmeyer and Barton (1998) point out that DRTA is only effective when the text being used is unfamiliar to the students. Since the technique relies on making predictions, it is essential for the teacher to ensure that the text is new to the students. This requires thorough preparation to confirm the material has not been previously introduced.

Another potential drawback, as noted by Corner (2006), is the challenge of managing large classes. Leading discussions and facilitating predictions can be difficult in this context. To address this issue, teachers can organize the classroom by grouping students who may not show interest in the text. Additionally, selecting text that are appropriate and engaging for the students' needs is crucial for maintaining their interest and participation.

F. Recount Text

1. Definition of Recount

According to the Merdeka Curriculum currently implemented in Indonesian schools, junior and senior high school students are required to master several text types, one of which is the recount text. This particular genre is especially relevant to learners because it deals with personal

experiences and real-life events that students can easily relate to. A recount text can be defined as a form of writing that reconstructs past occurrences in chronological order with the primary aim of informing readers or listeners about what took place and when it occurred (Cholipah, 2014). In a similar vein, Cakrawati (2018) explains that a recount is essentially an organised presentation of past events or experiences, intended not only to inform but also to entertain the audience by retelling incidents in a structured and engaging manner.

1. Types of Recount Text

According to (Cholipah, 2014), it explains that there are four types of Recount Text:

- 1) Personal recount: narrates the writer's own past experiences using the first-person perspective (I or we). Common examples include accounts of memorable holidays, joyful moments, or challenging situations encountered by the author himself.
- 2) Factual recount: presents an objective record of real events that took place, such as news reports about natural disasters, accidents, scientific discoveries, or historical incidents, without inserting personal opinions
- 3) Imaginative recount: takes actual events or situations and reconstructs them in a creative or fictional manner, often to entertain the reader while still following a chronological sequence
- 4) Biography recount: a biographical recount (or biography) describes the life journey of a particular individual—usually a notable or historical figure—written in the third-person perspective (he/she/they).

Based on the explanations above, the researcher deliberately concentrates on personal recount texts. This choice aligns with the learning materials prescribed for eighth-grade students under the merdeka Curriculum and matches their strong interest in sharing and reading about real personal experiences, which makes the texts highly relatable and engaging for this age group.

2. The Schematic Features of Recount Text

According to Rosyadi A. M. (2014), recount text usually has three main sections: Orientation, Sequence of events and Reorientation.

a. Generic Structure in Recount Text:

1. Orientation

This opening part sets the scene by introducing the participants, the setting (where and when the events took place), and sometimes the reason for the events. It answers the basic questions of who was involved, what the situation was, where and when it occurred, and occasionally why and how it began, thereby providing readers with clear background information.

2. Event

The core of the text consists of a chronological description of what happened. The writer presents the incidents in the order in which they unfolded, focusing on the sequence of actions, experiences, or activities that formed the story.

3. Reorientation

The closing section summarises the events, states the final outcome, or expresses the writer's personal feelings, reflections, or comments about the experience. It gives a sense of closure and often reveals what the participants felt or learned at the end of the story.

3. Language Features in Recount Text

a. Introducing Personal Participant or Specific Participant

Personal participant of the story shows who the actor of the story (who is the person that has done the activity). To show the person the writer uses I, she, he, person's name, my group, etc.

b. Using chronological connection

Recount text is a text that retells about an event in the past chronologically. To maintain a clear sequence of events, writers

employ time markers and sequence words such as first, then, after that, next, later, finally, before, afterwards, and soon. These connectors help readers follow the logical flow of what happened.

c. Using linking verb

The students arranging recount text, they need to use a linking verb. Verbs that indicate states or perceptions are frequently used to describe situations and feelings at particular moments, for example was, were, felt, seemed, looked, sounded, and appeared.

d. Using action verb

The text contains numerous material processes that describe what the participants did, such as went, climbed, celebrated, watched, ate, laughed, fell, and won, all expressed in the simple past tense

e. Using simple past tense.

The recount text is a text that retell about what happened in the past, so in arranging a recount text, the writer should be using past tense. Its purpose is to show that the story was happened in the past.

G. Previous Studies

To find the gap in existing research on the effectiveness of DRTA in reading instruction, several studies have investigated the impact of the strategy on students' comprehension skills. The first study, conducted by Yara Eka Sudra (2023), aimed to examine “The Effect of Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) Learning Strategy on Thematic Reading Comprehension Skills of Class IV Students at 147 Pekanbaru Elementary School”. The research utilized a descriptive correlation approach, showing that DRTA implementation led to notable improvements in thematic reading comprehension among fourth-grade elementary students.

The equation of the above research with the research to be carried out lies in the X variable, namely Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA). While the gap between the above research and the research to be carried out is in the Y variable of research, namely thematic reading comprehension

skills, the sample of the above research is grade IV elementary school, and the research method uses descriptive correlation.

The second study, by Khaldoun Ali Al-Janaydeh and Dina Abdul Hameed Al-Jamal (2022), explored “The Effectiveness of the Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) Strategy in Jordanian EFL Tenth-Grade Students' Reading Comprehension”. The results demonstrated significant reading comprehension gains after a DRTA-based program, measured through pre- and post-tests in a quasi-experimental design.

The equation of the above research with the research to be carried out lies in the X variable, namely Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA), and the research method uses quasi-experimental research. While the difference between the above research and the research to be carried out is on the Y variable of the research, namely general reading comprehension improvement, not focused on recount text, the sample of the above research is class X senior high school.

The third study, conducted by Laeli Khusniyati (2023), focused on “The Effect of the Application of the Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) Strategy on Understanding Folklore Reading in Javanese Language Subjects in Class IV Students of MI Miftakhul Huda Bengkal”. The study employed a pre-experimental one-group pretest-posttest design, revealing a significant increase in folklore reading understanding following DRTA application.

The equation of the above research with the research to be carried out lies in variable X, namely Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA). While the difference from the research above with the research to be carried out is on the Y variable of research, namely reading comprehension of folklore in Javanese language subjects, the sample of the research above is grade IV elementary school, and the research uses a quantitative pre-experimental type with a one-group pretest-posttest design.

The fourth study, by Faza Tsaniya Putri (2024), investigated “The Effect of the Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) Model with Picture Card Media on Reading Comprehension Skills in Social Studies

Subjects of Class IV Students of MI Al Falah”. Using a pre-experimental one-group pretest-posttest design, the findings confirmed that DRTA combined with picture card media proved effective in enhancing reading comprehension in social studies content.

The equation of the above research with the research to be carried out lies in variable X, namely Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA), with a slight variation in the use of picture card media. While the difference from the research above with the research to be carried out is on the Y variable of research, namely Reading Comprehension Ability in Social Studies Subjects, the sample of the research above is grade IV elementary school, and the research uses pre-experimental quantitative approach with a One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design.

In order to fill the existing research gap concerning the application of the Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA) strategy, this study is conducted. The preceding four studies confirm the general effectiveness of DRTA as an instructional variable (Variable X) across various contexts, including elementary students (Sudra, 2023; Khusniyati, 2023; Putri, 2024), different text types (thematic reading, folklore, and social studies content), and high school students in a general EFL context (Al-Janaydeh & Al-Jamal, 2022). However, a specific literature gap is identified in three key areas: context, text genre, and sample level. While Al-Janaydeh and Al-Jamal (2022) examined high school EFL students, their focus was on general reading comprehension improvement, not a specific genre. Conversely, the other three studies focused on elementary students. Therefore, the present research is unique as it specifically investigates the effect of the DRTA strategy on the reading comprehension of a specific genre, namely Recount Text, among eighth-grade junior high school students. This targeted focus on a particular genre within a distinct educational level (Junior High School) addresses the contextual and content gap left by previous research, providing a more precise understanding of DRTA's efficacy.